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ACCESS TO CITIZENSHIP AND ITS IMPACT ON IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION

HANDBOOK FOR ITALY



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ACCESS TO CITIZENSHIP AND ITS IMPACT ON IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION

HANDBOOK FOR ITALY

Prepared by the Migration Policy Group in coordination with
Iniziativa e studi sulla multiethnicità (ISMU)

Editor: Jasper Dag Tjaden (Migration Policy Group)

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INTRODUCTION

The project ‘Access to Citizenship and its Impact on Immigrant Integration (ACIT)’ funded by the European Fund for the Integration of Non-EU Immigrants provides a new evidence base for comparing different elements of citizenship in Europe.

The five consortium partners (the European University Institute, the Migration Policy Group, University College Dublin, University of Edinburgh and Maastricht University) have developed **four sets of citizenship indicators** on citizenship laws, their implementation, the share of citizenship acquisition among the foreign-born and naturalisation’s impact on integration for all 27 EU Member States, accession candidates (Croatia, Iceland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey) and European Economic Area countries (Norway, Switzerland).

The outcomes of this research were presented to politicians, civil servants, members of civil society and academics in ten EU Member States (Austria, Estonia, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and the United Kingdom) in order to **use this information to improve their policies and practices**. Citizenship stakeholders were asked to share their insights about which factors influence naturalisation rates, on the impact of citizenship on integration, on past and future policy changes and on the political environment for citizenship reform. These ‘**national roundtables**’ were a key element of this research as the national stakeholders had the opportunity to interpret the results and give meaning to the numbers.

The Migration Policy Group produced this **handbook** based on the results from the citizenship indicators and the responses of national stakeholders at the national roundtable. It provides a snapshot of how the vast amount of data of this project can be used for national policy debates. All citizenship stakeholders, be they policymakers, academics, non-governmental organisations or others, can go online and create their own graphs, dig into the data and use this information for presentations, debates or publications. All the results are accessible through an **interactive online tool and comparative reports** at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>.¹

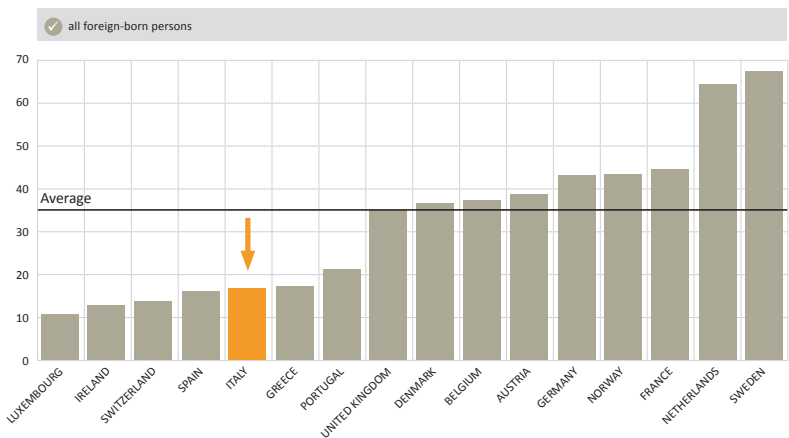
¹ For more information on the background and methodology see appendix and visit <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>. For more detailed information on national citizenship laws and procedures see EUDO country profiles available at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Italy>

1. CITIZENSHIP ACQUISITION INDICATORS: WHO BECOMES A CITIZEN?

How likely are foreign born immigrants to become citizens in Europe and how long does it take them? Citizenship Acquisition Indicators measure the share of foreign-born immigrants (aged 16-74) in 2008 that have acquired citizenship as well as the number of years between arrival in the country of residence and the acquisition of citizenship.²

Overall, 17% of foreign born immigrants have become citizens in Italy. Italy has only recently become a major country of immigration. Its share of citizenship acquisition is far below the EU-15 average of 34%. The acquisition of citizenship varies considerably across the EU. Between 60% and 70% of foreign-born immigrants are citizens in Sweden and the Netherlands compared to below 15% in Switzerland, Ireland and Luxembourg.

Share of citizenship acquisition among foreign-born in EU-15, Switzerland and Norway



Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

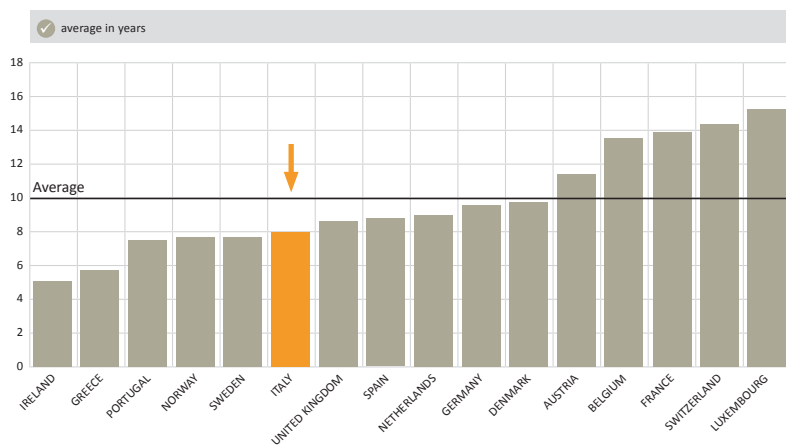
It takes foreign-born immigrants on average eight years to become citizens in Italy which is slightly faster than the average number of years in EU-15 countries.³ In EU-15 countries, Norway and Switzerland, it takes on average 10 years. Foreign born immigrants in Belgium, France, Switzerland, and Luxembourg take around 14 years to acquire citizenship compared to less than six years in Greece and Ireland. The average of eight years is below Italy's formal residence requirement for ordinary natu-

² See methodological appendix for more information.

³ This includes all foreign born immigrants regardless of their country of origin.

ralisation. Because so few foreign-born immigrants have naturalised, those that have naturalised are most likely the result of special preferential naturalisation procedures for the spouses and family members of Italian citizens and for the descendants of former Italian citizens.

Speed of naturalisation in EU-15 countries, Norway and Switzerland



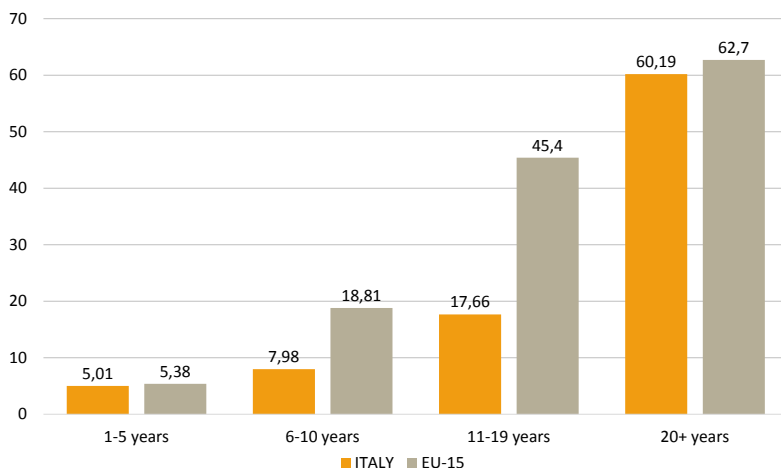
Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

What explains why immigrants become citizens in Europe and how much time it takes? The analysis concludes that residence, immigrants' country of origin, gender, background (education, employment and family status among others), and policies are determining factors to apply for citizenship.

Firstly, residence matters: One reason for the below-average share of naturalised persons in Italy in 2008 is the country's status as a recent country of immigration. Immigrants in Italy are more often 'recent' arrivals than immigrants in longer established countries of immigration in Europe. Our multivariate analysis⁴ shows that **the longer immigrants have settled in a country, the more likely they are to become citizens.** Italy fits the general trend as the number of naturalisations is three times higher after 20 years of residence compared to five years of residence in the country.

4 See Vink, M./ Prokic-Breuer, T./ Dronkers, J. (2013): Immigrant naturalization in the context of institutional diversity: policy matters, but to whom? [International Migration](#) [forthcoming]. The sample includes EU-15 countries (minus Italy), Norway and Switzerland. Unfortunately, Italy was not part of the analysis due to insufficient data availability.

Share of citizenship acquisition by residence in Italy, 2008 (%)

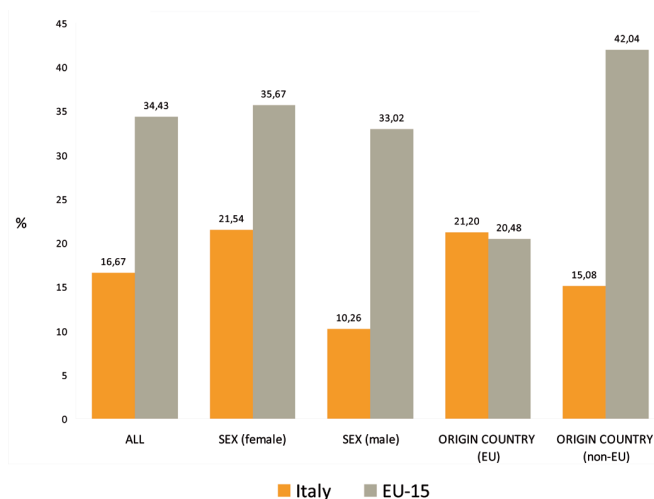


Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Immigrants' background plays a major role. The foreign born population that immigrated from less economically developed countries tend to naturalise more often in Europe than immigrants from higher developed countries. Immigrants coming from medium and under-developed countries are on average 2.5 times more likely to be citizens than those coming from highly developed countries. Immigrants from less developed countries also take longer to acquire citizenship than immigrants from higher developed countries. Across EU countries, the role of immigrants' backgrounds can be reflected in the different results for EU and non-EU citizens: Immigrants from outside the EU (on average from lower developed countries) are commonly much more likely to be citizens. In Italy, the difference between EU and non-EU immigrants is actually reversed. So few immigrants have naturalised in Italy that the shares for non-EU immigrants (15%) appear lower than they do for EU citizens (21%), who rarely naturalise in Italy or in most other EU countries.

Gender matters: Foreign born women in the EU are usually more likely to be citizens than men. This trend clearly applies to Italy where men are only half as likely to become citizens compared to women. Again, this trend could reflect patterns in the facilitated naturalisation of wives of Italian citizens.

Shares of citizenship acquisition by gender and country of origin, 2008 (%)



Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Education, employment, family status and the use of language are additional factors that influence the acquisition of citizenship. Across most EU-15 countries, immigrants from less developed countries who have at least secondary education are about 42% more likely to naturalise than those with only primary education. Immigrants from both developing and developed countries are more likely to be citizens if they speak the country of residence's language at home, if they are married, and if they are employed.

Policies matter: While these individual factors do play a role, **citizenship laws significantly influence how many immigrants become citizens because they determine the conditions under which immigrants can choose to naturalise.**

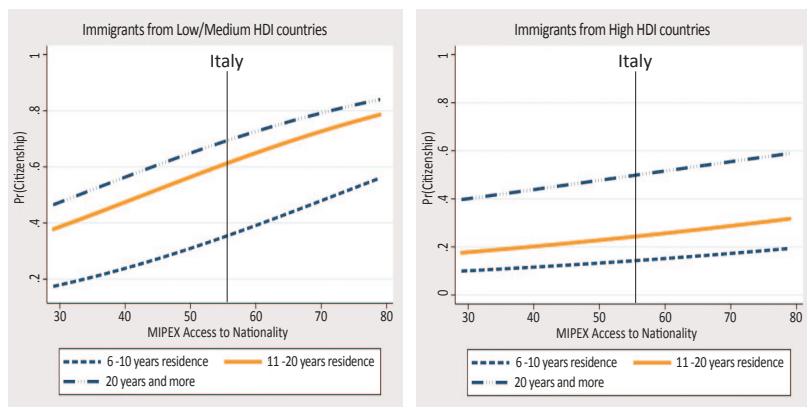
One example is the acceptance of multiple nationality: Immigrants from less developed countries that reside in EU countries that accept dual citizenship are 40% more likely to be citizens of the country of residence.⁵

More importantly, inclusive citizenship laws in the country of residence have a major effect on whether or not immigrants naturalise:⁶

⁵ Multiple nationality must be tolerated by both the country of origin and the country of residence.

⁶ Policies are measured by an adjusted score of the Migrant Integration Policy Index, see www.mipex.eu/

Probability of citizenship acquisition in EU-15 countries⁷



Source: Vink, M./
Prokic-Breuer, T./
Dronkers, J. (2013),
also see [http://
eudo-citizenship.
eu/indicators](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators)

This graph above shows how policies affect immigrants' uptake of citizenship on average in EU-15 countries, Norway and Switzerland. **Citizenship policies matter more for immigrants from less developed countries, especially for newcomers** (as the three lines in on the left are steeper than the lines for immigrants from higher developed countries on the right). As for immigrants coming from highly developed countries, they are not only less likely to acquire citizenship, but whether or not they do so also seems to depend on fewer factors that go beyond the time of residence in the country. **Italy's naturalisation laws are thus a major factor determining the low share of naturalisation among foreign-born immigrants.**

⁷ The horizontal axis in the graph represents the 'openness' of citizenship laws across EU countries. The vertical axis represents the probability that foreign born immigrants are citizens. This analysis used pooled data from the European Social Survey (2002-2010) available for 16 Western European countries (EU-15, minus Italy, plus Norway and Switzerland). The graph shows that citizenship laws have a different effect for immigrants from different countries and with different length of duration in the country.

2. CITIZENSHIP LAW INDICATORS: WHAT ARE IMMIGRANTS' LEGAL OPPORTUNITIES TO BECOME A CITIZEN?

Since citizenship policies influence why more immigrants become citizens in one country and not the other, what are the legal opportunities and obstacles that they face in Europe? Citizenship Law Indicators describe and compare legal rules for birth-right acquisition, naturalisation and loss of citizenship across countries and over time. Indicators measure degrees of inclusion and individual choice on a 0 to 1 scale.⁸ The provisions of citizenship laws have different target groups, such as immigrants, native born, emigrants, family members of citizens or stateless persons. A score of close to 1 indicates that the legal rules are relatively inclusive for the respective target group or allow more choice of citizenship status to its members, whereas a score close to 0 indicates more exclusion or lack of individual choice.

Overall, Italy's citizenship regime is slightly more restrictive than in other EU-15 countries, in particular ordinary naturalisation for foreign-born adults and citizenship for their descendants birth in the territory (*ius soli*).⁹

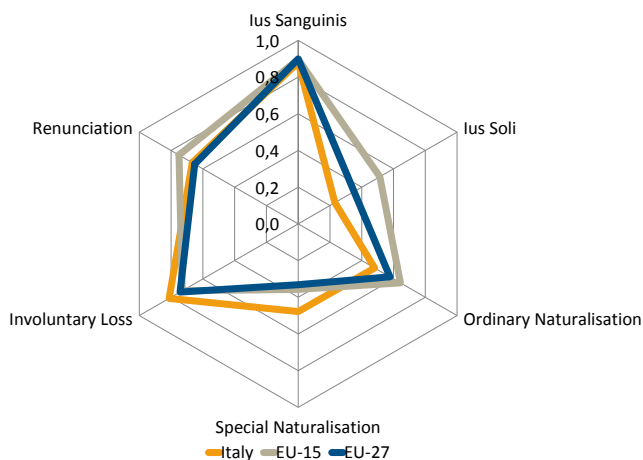
Italy has inclusive *ius sanguinis* provisions, allowing indefinite extension of citizenship by descent both in the country and abroad, although children born out of wedlock to Italian citizen fathers become citizens only after parental recognition.

Ius soli is much more restrictive in Italy than in most EU countries. Only foundlings and stateless children born in Italy automatically acquire Italian citizenship. **Unlike in most other EU-15 countries, there is no provision for citizenship at birth for children born to foreign parents who have been resident in Italy for a period of time.** Some form of *ius soli* at birth has become a trend across Europe, most recently from Germany to Italy to Luxembourg. Children born in Italy who have been resident in the country for their entire childhood can acquire Italian citizenship through a declaration procedure within one year of reaching age 18. This route is very rarely used, however, due to this limited period of time for application and strict rules the length of permitted absence from the country.

⁸ See methodological appendix for more information.

⁹ For more details on Italian citizenship laws, please see the EUDO country profile, accessible at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/admin/?p=file&appl=countryProfiles&f=Italy.pdf>

Overall results of the Citizenship Law Indicators for Italy



Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

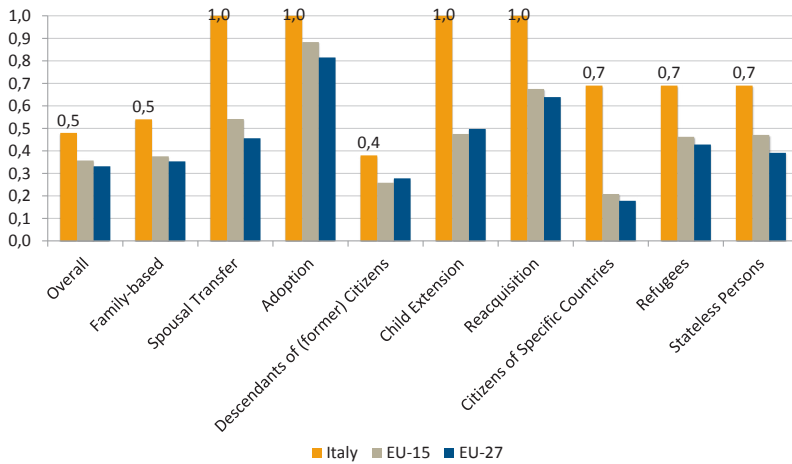
Compared to most EU countries, Italy provides slightly greater preferential access to citizenship for certain groups based on their special ties or contributions to the country, such as family members and descendants of former citizens.

Spouses of Italian citizens are entitled to Italian citizenship after two years of residence in Italy or, if they are not resident in Italy, after three years of marriage if they have not committed any serious crimes (*spousal transfer*).

The child of a person who acquires Italian citizenship by naturalisation automatically acquires Italian citizenship as long as the child resides with the parent who is naturalising (*child extension*). Foreign-born children of Italian citizens who do not benefit from child extension do not have preferential access to citizenship (*child transfer*). The absence of access to citizenship based on residence in the country as a child (*socialisation-based*) means that many foreign-born children may access citizenship only through the ordinary, residence-based naturalisation procedure at the age of majority.

Italy offers extensive access for descendants of Italian citizens. Italy provides access to a discretionary naturalisation procedure to children and grandchildren of Italian citizens (by birth) after three years of residence in the country. Other ordinary naturalisation conditions apply. A *descendant of Italian citizens* can also declare Italian citizenship at the age of 18 if he or she was resident in Italy for two years before the age of 18 or if he or she has performed military or civil service for Italy. *Refugees and stateless persons* have access to Italian citizenship through the demanding naturalisation process after five years of residence in Italy.

Provisions for 'special naturalisation'



Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

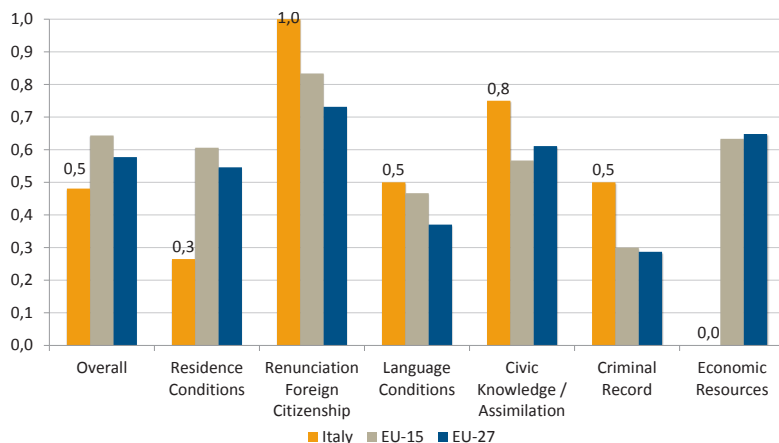
There are higher legal obstacles to ordinary naturalisation in Italy than in most EU countries. In particular, the long residence requirement and demanding economic resource requirement separates Italy from other EU-15 countries. At least Italy follows the EU trends to facilitate naturalisation through the tolerance of multiple nationality (*renunciation*).

Italy has one of the longest residence requirements in the EU, with very few exceptions, such as Austria, Spain, and Switzerland. Immigrants can only apply for naturalisation after 10 years of uninterrupted residence in Italy. Applicants must possess a long-term residence permit before application for naturalisation (*residence*).

Italy also has one of the most demanding economic resource requirements in the EU. Applicants for naturalisation must also provide proof of sufficient income during the three years prior to application (*economic resources*). Around half the countries studied do not impose any economic resource requirement, while those that do only require proof of a basic legal source of income at the time of application.

Italian language skills and civic knowledge are assessed informally through a discretionary procedure. In practice, this can lead to arbitrary judgements in particular regarding the level of civic knowledge. The integration assessment remains a 'grey zone' where the authorities retain most of their discretion in interpreting the degree of language and social/civic integration of the applicant. The assessment is conducted by the Questura (Police), which interviews the applicants and sends a report to the Prefecture. This interview is never mentioned in the information materials and/or the application forms. Since 2009, applicants for a permanent residence permit must also pass a formal language and integration test.

Provisions for ordinary naturalisation



Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Results from the National Roundtable¹⁰

Despite the increasing importance of citizenship in Italy's public debate and multiple attempts to introduce new bills to Parliament, the law have not been changed significantly since 1992. The 1992 Citizenship Act, which is still the main statute regulating the acquisition and loss of citizenship in Italy, is inspired by the principles of *ius sanguinis* and co-ethnic preference for foreigners of Italian origin. The current legislation does not reflect the reality of Italy as one of Europe's most important countries of immigration. Most national roundtable participants agreed that the lack of fundamental reform of citizenship legislation was the major issue because Italy needs more inclusive *ius soli* provisions (e.g. for children that attended school in Italy) and facilitated ordinary naturalisation (e.g. reducing the residence requirement).

*It is important to promote citizenship for children born in the country by *ius soli* in combination with some requirements such as, for example, school attendance. It is necessary to promote citizenship for immigrants by providing a shorter and better defined procedure based on the rule of law.*

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Rome, 31 January 2013, NGO)

The delay to reform the citizenship law is due to the political backwardness. Over the past decades the debate in Italy on changing citizenship practices and politics have provided much popular commentary and critical analysis, but no action. This has led to tensions and conflicts in the whole country.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Rome, 31 January 2013, NGO)

¹⁰ The Italian national roundtable, organised by the 'ISMU Foundation', hosted in total two academic experts and five representatives of non-governmental organisations.

The citizenship law is older than the public debate in this field. The civil society is actually looking for a reform on citizenship acquisition. General legal barriers, the language and integration requirement and economic resource requirements need reforming.

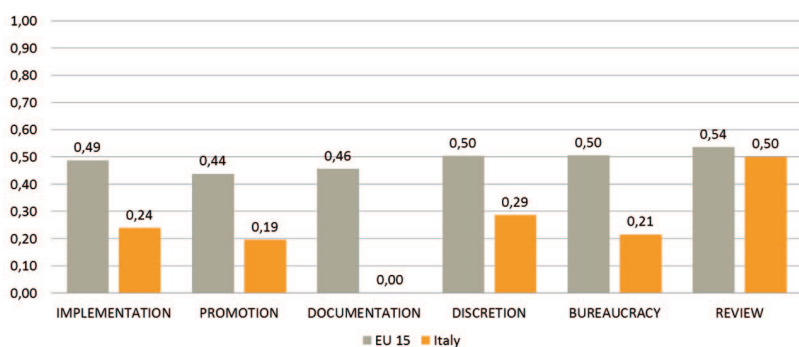
(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Rome,
31 January 2013, academic expert)

3. CITIZENSHIP IMPLEMENTATION INDICATORS: WHAT ARE THE PROCEDURAL OBSTACLES TO ORDINARY NATURALISATION?

Opportunities created by the law may be undermined by problems in the procedure. Creating indicators is one way to measure the major opportunities and obstacles in the procedure. Citizenship Implementation Indicators measure on a 0 to 1 scale the formal aspects of the ordinary naturalisation procedure: promotion activities, documentation requirements, administrative discretion, bureaucratic procedures, and review and appeal options. 38 indicators compare all implementation stages, from efforts by public authorities to inform applicants to the options to appeal a negative decision. A score of 1 means that the country facilitates naturalisation and involves few practical obstacles. A score of 0 reflects a procedure with little facilitation and many practical obstacles.¹¹

In the majority of countries there is a link between the policies and the way that they are implemented. In general, countries that have more legal obstacles also tend to have more practical obstacles in the procedure and vice-versa. Similarly, ordinary naturalisation not only involves some of the most restrictive legal requirements in the EU, but also some of the most restrictive procedures. In fact, immigrants face more practical obstacles to ordinary naturalisation in Italy than in any other EU-15 country. Italy has done the least to promote naturalisation, requires the most demanding documentation, and maintains the most discretionary and bureaucratic procedure in the EU.

Overall results of Citizenship Implementation Indicators for Italy



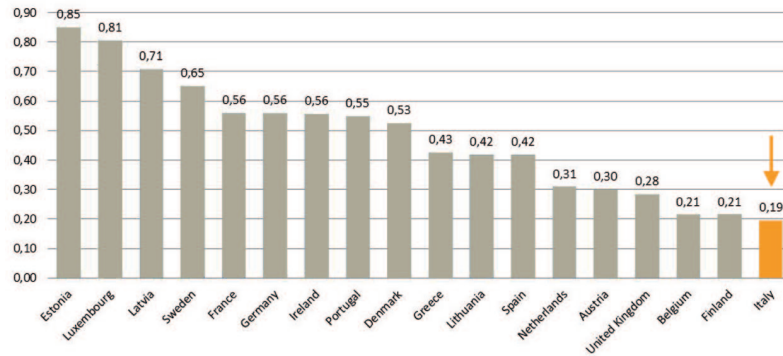
Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

¹¹ For more information see appendix, the EUDO report on naturalisation procedures accessible at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/admin/?p=file&appl=countryProfiles&f=CITIMP%20Italy.pdf> or visit <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>.

Promotion

At national level, Italy does the least to promote naturalisation compared to all other EU 15 countries. While there is a basic website available, as in most countries, the quality of information provided is insufficient in Italy. There is no dedicated information service for naturalisation and no promotional materials, unlike in most countries. While there have been a few local campaigns on the city level, there has never been a national campaign to promote naturalisation. Local citizenship ceremonies are low key and usually do not involve the media. Comparatively high naturalisation fees may dissuade immigrants from applying while, at the same time, there is no legal right for particular groups to be exempt from fees.

Promotion activities in selected EU countries

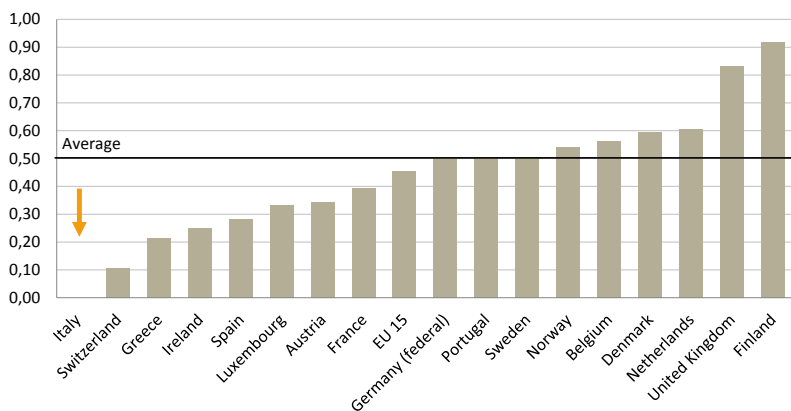


Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Documentation

Providing the required documentation for naturalisation is more difficult in Italy than in any other EU-15 country. Italy requires proof for several years of residence, identity and income. Proving identity requires certified and translated paperwork from the country of origin. There are no clear alternative means for providing identity documentation for cases where obtaining origin country documentation is difficult or impossible. Applicants for naturalisation also have to obtain a criminal record from the country of origin themselves. The discretionary language and integration assessment is often lacking official guidelines and may lead to arbitrary decisions and unequal treatment of applicants by authorities.

Documentation in EU-15 countries, Norway and Switzerland

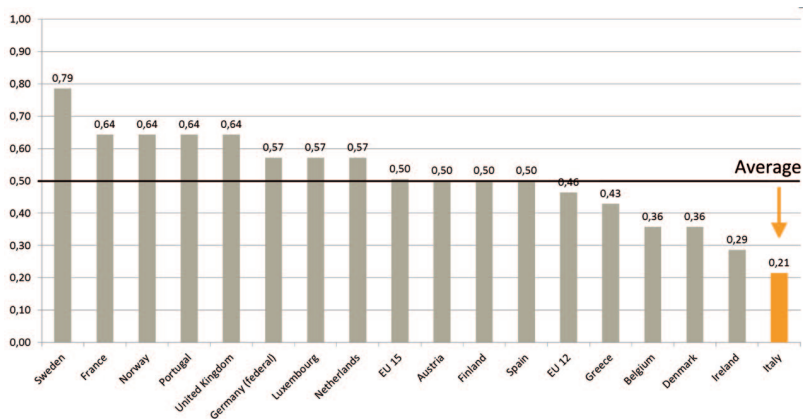


Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Bureaucracy

The Italian naturalisation procedures are more bureaucratic in Italy than in all other EU-15 countries. In other countries, applicants can send the application to the one specialised citizenship unit in charge with checking and deciding on their application. In Italy, there are three different authorities involved in processing the application. The prefect receives the application, the police checks the documents and the Interior Ministry makes the decision. Additional agencies will be consulted for checking documentation and the final decision along the process. This can lead to serious delays in the procedure. While time limits for processing the application exist, there are no sanctions applied to authorities that violate time limits.

Bureaucracy in EU-15 countries



Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Results from the National Roundtable

The bureaucratic procedure has been identified as the major obstacle to ordinary naturalisation in Italy, confirming Italy's exceptionally poor results on this project's implementation indicators. Italy has a poorly organised public administration on naturalisation, meaning that national agencies have so far been unable to enforce common standards across the country.

The first problem is the long and difficult bureaucratic process. This is maybe the main obstacle for an immigrant to become an Italian citizen. The lack of public administration will also have a negative influence on the implementation of any new citizenship law in the future. The lack of accountability of public officers in case of failure in the procedures is a major problem.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Rome,
31 January 2013, NGO)

The police makes wide use of discretion when assessing naturalisation applications, which can lead to a lack of transparency and the unequal treatment for applicants.

Naturalization is perceived by the authorities such as a security problem and it is in fact ruled by police with a wide discretion.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Rome,
31 January 2013, academic expert)

The lack of any public promotion of citizenship and naturalisation has a negative impact on demand, reflecting low scores on promotion indicators.

Unfortunately, there are no national campaigns to promote the acquisition of citizenship organized by the state. There are only private initiatives and sometimes initiatives of local governments.

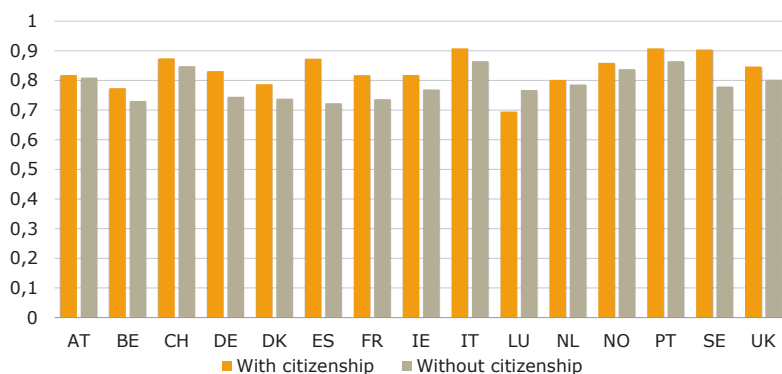
(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Rome,
31 January 2013, academic expert)

4. CITIZENSHIP INTEGRATION INDICATORS: DOES CITIZENSHIP MATTER FOR INTEGRATION?

Are naturalised immigrants better off than immigrants that have not acquired citizenship? Citizenship Integration Indicators compare labour market participation and socio-economic status of native citizens, naturalised citizens and non-citizens based on the 2008 Labour Force Survey and EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions. Ten core indicators measure levels of integration in the EU-27 countries, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland with regards to the citizenship status of migrants. Indicators are organised into three categories: labour force participation, social exclusion, and living conditions.¹²

In most countries, immigrants who have naturalised are often better off than immigrants who have not naturalised. This is true even after taking into account the differences in age at arrival in the country, the years of residence, education, the region of origin, the region of the destination country and the reason for migration.

Employment of foreign born immigrants after statistical controls



Source: ACIT conference presentation

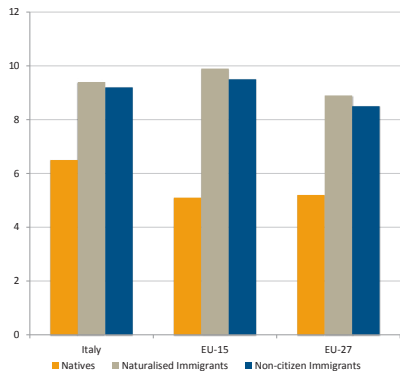
On average across Europe, the difference between naturalised and non-naturalised is particularly high for immigrants from non-EU countries. Overall, naturalised migrants are more often employed, less often overqualified for their jobs, have better housing conditions and have less difficulty paying household expenses.¹³

¹² The handbook features a selection of Citizenship Integration indicators. For more information see appendix and <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>.

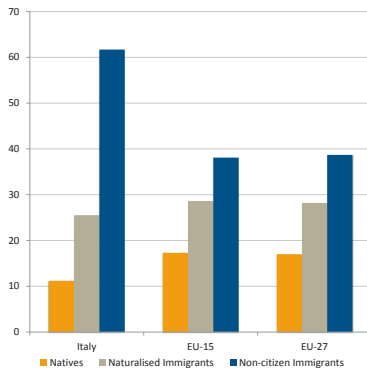
¹³ For more information see OECD (2011) 'A passport for the better integration of immigrants' and Citizenship Integration Indicators at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>.

While immigrants that have become Italian citizens are not necessary less likely to be unemployed on average, there are significantly less likely to be overqualified for their job. On average, immigrants without Italian citizenship have more difficulties making ends meet and have a higher housing cost burden than immigrants that have acquired Italian citizenship.

Unemployment Rates, 2008 (%)

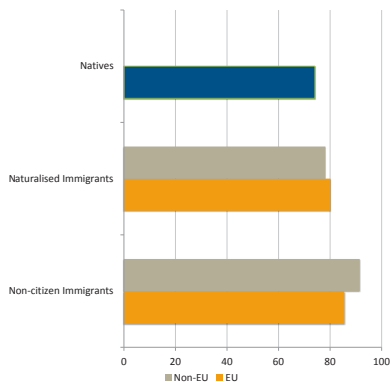


Overqualification Rates, 2008 (%)

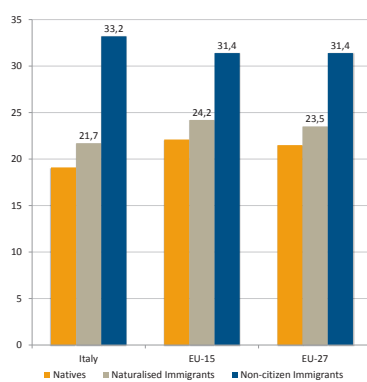


Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Share Having Difficulty Making Ends Meet, 2008 (%)



Housing Cost Burden, 2008 (% of monthly income)



Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

In most of Europe, better outcomes for naturalised immigrants seem to be a sign that ‘better integrated’ immigrants are more likely to acquire citizenship irrespective of how inclusive or restrictive a country’s citizenship policy is. While immigrants from less developed countries are more likely to apply, among them, the ‘better integrated’ do. Thus, the most integrated immigrants become citizens regardless of how demanding the naturalisation requirements are.

But does the acquisition of citizenship itself actually improve integration outcomes? Does the policy select the best ‘integrated’ immigrants or do only the best ‘integrated’ immigrants apply regardless of the policy? Do naturalised immigrants usually have better living conditions because they have acquired citizenship or is it more common for people with better living conditions to apply for citizenship?

More national and international research is needed to clarify the effects of citizenship and better address why naturalised immigrants often have better integration outcomes. Researchers need panel data to answer this question about causality. Several studies that have used panel data analysis have found a positive effect of citizenship on labour market participation in Germany, France and the United States.¹⁴ This project found also that, although political participation increases mainly with length of residence, citizenship status makes it more likely that first generation immigrants will also engage in less conventional forms of participation, such as wearing a campaign sticker, signing a petition, taking part in a demonstration or boycotting certain products.

¹⁴ For more detail, see the OECD publication ‘A passport for the better integration of immigrants?’ (2011).

KEY RESULTS:

1. Overall, Italy's citizenship regime is slightly more restrictive than in most EU-15 countries, in particular ordinary naturalisation for foreign-born adults and citizenship for their descendants birth in the territory (*ius soli*).
2. Requiring 10 year residence for ordinary naturalisation is far longer than the EU average. The discretionary language and civic knowledge requirement can lead to a lack of transparency and unequal treatment of applicants across Italy.
3. Italy requires proof of income during the three years prior to application. Most other EU countries either do not require income for naturalisation or accept any basic legal source of income at only the time of application.
4. Italy has among the most unfavourable procedures for ordinary naturalisation in the EU. Italy has done the least to promote naturalisation, requires the most demanding documentation, and maintains the most discretionary and bureaucratic procedure in the EU.

METHODOLOGICAL APPENDIX

CITIZENSHIP ACQUISITION INDICATORS

Citizenship Acquisition Indicators have been developed by Maarten Vink (Maastricht University/ European University Institute) and Tijana Prokic-Breuer (Maastricht University). Acquisition indicators have been calculated for 25 European states. The data source for the indicators is the Labour Force Survey Ad Hoc Module 2008 on the labour market situation of migrants and their descendants (Eurostat). The target population includes all persons aged between 15 and 74 (or 16 to 74 in countries where the target group for the core Labour Force Survey is from 16 years old). All numbers presented are based on at least 100 respondents.

Data is presented for the following European countries: Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. In Germany, information on country of birth is missing for all respondents. To determine the region of origin (EU or non-EU), the study uses the country of birth of the father and/or mother of the respondent. There was no data provided by Eurostat for Finland. Data was excluded for Bulgaria, Malta and Romania due to small sample sizes.

Acquisition indicators analyse several factors, including

- **sex** (the percentage of foreign-born females and males who have acquired citizenship of the respective country of residence),
- **origin** (the percentage of foreign-born persons from EU and non-EU countries who have acquired citizenship of the respective country of residence)
- **the age at migration** (the percentage of foreign-born persons who have acquired citizenship of their country of residence, differentiated by the age at which the respondent took up residence; age groups: 0-17 years; 18-39 years; 40+ years)
- **years of residence by cohort** (the percentage of foreign-born persons who have acquired citizenship of their country of residence, differentiated by the number of years of residence: 1-5 years; 6-10 years; 11-19 years; 20 + years)
- **years of residence by minimum number of years** (the percentage of foreign-born persons who have acquired citizenship of their country of residence, differentiated by the number of years the respondent has minimally resided there: at least 5 years; at least 10 years; at least 15 years; at least 20 years)
- **the time until naturalisation** (the numbers of years it takes on average for foreign-born persons to acquire the citizenship of the respective country of residence)

For more information visit:

<http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/citacqindicators>

CITIZENSHIP LAW INDICATORS

Citizenship Law Indicators have been developed by Rainer Bauböck (European University Institute), Iseult Honohan and Kristen Jeffers (University College Dublin) in consultation with Maarten Vink (University of Maastricht) and Thomas Huddleston (Migration Policy Group).

Basic indicator scores have been calculated on the basis of a list of substantive and procedural requirements for each mode of acquisition or loss of citizenship using both additive and weighting formulas. The scoring is based on EUDO CITIZENSHIP's qualitative databases on [modes of acquisition](#) and [loss](#) of citizenship, on the detailed country reports and additional information from standardised questionnaire answers by legal experts in the respective countries.

Citizenship indicators are aggregated at different levels in order to analyse more general features of citizenship laws. The six highest level indicators that are calculated using all 45 basic indicators are: *ius sanguinis*, *ius soli*, residence-based ordinary naturalisation, naturalisation on specific grounds, voluntary renunciation and withdrawal/lapse.

These indicators have been calculated for 36 European states. The following labels are used for average indicators: EUROPE for all 36 states, EU 27 for all 2012 member states of the EU, EU 15 for the pre-2004 EU member states and EU 12 for the post-2004 accession states. Citizenship Law Indicators are based on citizenship laws at the end of 2011. In the future, it is foreseen to offer a new edition for past years that allow analysing trends over time.

For more information visit:

<http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/eudo-citizenship-law-indicators> where you will also find a comprehensive [methodology report](#).

CITIZENSHIP IMPLEMENTATION INDICATORS

Citizenship Implementation Indicators have been developed by Thomas Huddleston (Migration Policy Group).

Citizenship Implementation Indicators have been calculated for 35 European states, as well as for three German federal provinces. The following list presents the five dimensions and the number of corresponding indicators and sub-indicators:

- Promotion: how much do authorities encourage eligible applicants to apply?
- Documentation: how easy is it for applicants to prove that they meet the legal conditions?
- Discretion: how much room do authorities have to interpret the legal conditions?
- Bureaucracy: how easy is it for authorities to come to a decision?
- Review: how strong is judicial oversight of the procedure?

A country's overall score is calculated as the simple average of these five dimensions. Based on a 0 to 1 scale, countries with scores closer to 1 create fewer obstacles in the implementation of naturalisation law. For each of the five dimensions, procedures that score closer to 1 involve greater promotion, easier documentation, less discretion, less bureaucracy, and/or stronger review. Countries with scores closer to 0 create more obstacles in the implementation of the naturalisation law. For each of the five dimensions, procedures that score closer to 0 involve little promotion, difficult documentation, wide discretion, greater bureaucracy, and/or weak review. The scores are the result of country reports written for the purpose of this project and a standardised questionnaire filled in by legal experts.

For more information visit:

<http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/citimpindicators>

CITIZENSHIP INTEGRATION INDICATORS

Citizenship Integration Indicators have been developed by Derek Hutcheson and Kristen Jeffers (University College Dublin).

The indicators are derived from the 2008 EU Labour Force Survey Ad Hoc Module on 'The Labour Market Situation of Migrants and Their Descendants' (Eurostat). Socio-Economic Status indicators are derived from the 2008 cross-sectional EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC).

Some data may be omitted due to small sample sizes. All numbers presented are based on at least 100 respondents or 20 for the Socio-Economic Status indicators.

Citizenship indicators include:

LABOUR FORCE INDICATORS

Unemployment: the number of people aged 15 to 74 unemployed, as defined by the International Labour Organisation, as a percentage of the labour force (the total number of people employed plus unemployed) of the same age group.

Economic Activity Rate: the total number of people aged 15 to 74 employed plus the total number of people unemployed (the labour force) as a percentage of the total population of the same age group.

Level of Education: the mean highest education attainment level among respondents aged 25 to 74. Values correspond to mean education levels specified by the International Standard Classification on Education: (1) primary education; (2) lower secondary education; (3) higher secondary education; (4) post-secondary non-tertiary education; (5) university degree; (6) postgraduate studies.

Overqualification rate: calculated as a share of the population aged 25 to 74 with a high educational level (ISCED 5 or 6), and having low or medium skilled jobs (ISCO

occupation levels 4 to 9) among employed persons having attained a high educational level of the same age group.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS INDICATORS

Social Benefit dependence: measures receipt of family/children related allowance, housing allowances, and social benefits not elsewhere classified as the mean share of respondents' gross annual income.

Poor dwelling (quality): aims to objectively measure the quality of the respondents' accommodation. Values correspond to the percentage of respondents who indicate that the dwelling in which they live has a problem with a leaking roof and/or damp ceilings, dampness in the walls, floors or foundation and/or rot in window frames and doors.

Poor dwelling (environment): aims to objectively measure the quality of the area in which the respondent resides. Values correspond to the percentage of respondents who indicate that pollution, grime, or other environmental problems in the area caused by traffic or industry is a problem for the household.

Poor dwelling (crime): aims to objectively measure the quality of the area in which the respondent resides. Values correspond to the percentage of respondents who indicate that crime, violence, or vandalism in the area is a problem for the household.

Difficulty making ends meet: measures the level of difficulty the respondents' household has in paying its usual expenses. Values correspond to the percentage of respondents that indicate they have some difficulty, difficulty, or great difficulty paying usual household expenses.

Housing cost burden: measures the average percentage of monthly disposable household income spent on monthly housing costs.

Unmet health need: measures the percentage of respondents who indicated that there had been at least one occasion during the last twelve months when the respondent needed medical or dental examination or treatment and did not receive treatment.

For more information visit:

<http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/integration-indicators>

NATIONAL ROUNDTABLES

National Roundtables were organised by national partners and the Migration Policy Group in Austria, Estonia, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and the United Kingdom. The purpose of the roundtables was to present the project's country results to national stakeholders in order to gather their feedback and interpret the findings in a national policy context. Participants were asked about the factors that influence naturalisation, the impact of citizenship on various forms of

integration, the impact of national policies and the political environment for reform. The ten events took place between November 2012 and February 2013.

10-20 national stakeholders were invited to each event. Stakeholders included civil servants working in national, regional or local administration, regional or national-level politicians, members of non-governmental organisations including immigrant organisation, advocacy groups and service providers, citizenship and immigration lawyers, and academic researchers working for research institutes and universities. The full list of participants in each country is not made public because participants were insured anonymity to facilitate open debate.

The ten national roundtables were organised in two structured focus group sessions of each 60-90 minutes. The discussion was recorded and transcribed by national partners and analysed by the Migration Policy Group. All transcripts were used for content analysis using Nvivo software package for coding.

For more information, see the comparative EU level report:
<http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>



About the MIGRATION POLICY GROUP

The Migration Policy Group is an independent non-profit European organisation dedicated to strategic thinking and acting on mobility, equality, and diversity. MPG's mission is to contribute to lasting and positive change resulting in open and inclusive societies by stimulating well-informed European debate and action on migration, equality and diversity, and enhancing European co-operation between and amongst governmental agencies, civil society organisations and the private sector.

We articulate this mission through four primary activities focused on harnessing the advantages of migration, equality and diversity and responding effectively to their challenges:

1. Gathering, analysing and sharing information
2. Creating opportunities for dialogue and mutual learning
3. Mobilising and engaging stakeholders in policy debates
4. Establishing, inspiring and managing expert networks

For more information on our past and current research, visit our website at www.migpolgroup.com



About EUDO-CITIZENSHIP

Democracy is government accountable to citizens. But how do states determine who their citizens are? EUDO CITIZENSHIP allows you to answer this and many other questions on citizenship in the EU member states and neighbouring countries.

EUDO CITIZENSHIP is an observatory within the [European Union Observatory on Democracy \(EUDO\)](#) web platform hosted at the Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies of the European University Institute in Florence.

The observatory conducts research and provides exhaustive and updated information on loss and acquisition of citizenship, national and international legal norms, citizenship statistics, bibliographical resources, comparative analyses and debates about research strategies and policy reforms.

For more information on our past and current research, visit our website at www.eudo-citizenship.eu

